

Genetic mutations you want

To cure disease, researchers are starting to scour the genomes of the abnormally healthy.

Sarah C. P. Williams, Science Writer

In 2009, researchers at the Broad Institute in Boston, led by geneticist David Altschuler, started recruiting elderly, overweight individuals who, by all accounts, ought to have type 2 diabetes but didn't. The scientists weren't looking for genetic mutations that cause diabetes but rather hoping to find mutations that prevent it. Their search paid off; last year, the group reported in *Nature Genetics* that people who have particular mutations in a gene called *SLC30A8* (Solute carrier family 30, member 8) are 65% less likely to get diabetes, even when they have risk factors like obesity (1).

The gene has subtle effects on insulin, and, for a fortunate few, mutations that knock out its function seem to offset the forces that would, for the rest of us, likely lead to diabetes. Similarly protective mutations—that disable a gene but create a benefit rather than a problem—have been discovered somewhat accidentally in the past. One percent of Northern Europeans,

for instance, are now known to carry a mutation in a gene called *CCR-5* that renders a cellular receptor defective and confers total immunity from HIV infection (2).

And there's evidence of more lucky mutations lurking in human genomes, in the form of people who seem to defy the odds—the long-lived smokers (3), or the individuals who remain unscathed in the midst of an infectious disease outbreak. Especially intriguing are those who carry gene mutations that are known to cause disease yet who show no signs of illness.

Now, cheaper sequencing is making it possible to hunt for these fairy godmother mutations and paving a more direct route toward turning discoveries into potential medications, or even targets for new gene editing techniques. It's a potentially fruitful strategy. Figuring out how to mimic the effects of a beneficial mutation is often simpler than determining how to reverse the effects of a detrimental one, says cardiologist and geneticist Sekar Kathiresan, also of the Broad Institute. "The most useful genetic findings are those that decrease a gene's function and protect against disease," he says. "These immediately tell you that if you can develop a drug that mimics the mutation, it should work in humans."

Finding these beneficial mutations, however, can be harder than finding disease-linked DNA changes. Recruiting people who rarely use the healthcare system is one hurdle. Another is that existing genetic databases are not usually designed to identify the absence of illness. But forging ahead despite these challenges is worthwhile, says Leslie Biesecker of the National Human Genome Research Institute (NHGRI). Scientists have long studied single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) that are associated with disease, and investigating the opposite phenomenon will shed further light on the basic biology of how genes interact with one another, he says.

"We've been studying disease cohorts for a long time, and we've learned a lot from that. But if you really want to understand the full spectrum of the relationship between genes and disease, you have to study as many different kinds of people as you possibly can," says Biesecker. "You have to study diseased people, but you also have to study healthy people."

The Unusually Well

Because so many chronic illnesses don't manifest until later in life, the unusually healthy elderly are one good



Beneficial mutations found in the "wellderly" or in disease survivors may point the way toward therapeutics. Image courtesy of Dave Cutler.

misshapen proteins called prions, and, in the 1950s and 1960s, it spread rapidly among members of a cannibalistic tribe in Papa New Guinea. When someone died of kuru, ritualistic consumption of their body meant that those participating in the ceremony would contract the disease too. In some villages, almost all of the women of childbearing age perished.

But decades later, there were also survivors—people who had partaken of the feasts and never gotten sick. In the early 1990s, Collinge began sequencing their genomes. Over the past two decades, he's revealed mutations in their prion protein gene, *PRNP*, that protect them from kuru (12).

"In those families with the polymorphism, there's hardly any kuru despite very high levels of exposure," says Collinge. This year, Collinge and his colleagues reported in *Nature* that mice with one of the mutations were protected from 18 different kinds of prion disease (13). "This particular finding is incredibly powerful," says Collinge. "We went from 100 percent of the mice dying to 0 percent." Now, the researchers are working on determining the structure of the protective

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—Sekar Kathiresan

prion proteins, which could shed light on how to mimic the mutation in the rest of the human population, possibly leading to treatments for not just kuru but a variety of prion diseases.

Ideally, the discovery of a protective mutation can inform the development of a drug that mimics its molecular effects in the body. Inhibitors of CETP, studied by Barzilai, have been explored as cholesterol drugs, although none has reached the market. And 23andMe's discovery that some *SGK1* mutations protect against Parkinson's has been followed up with basic research showing that blocking SGK1, a protein known to mediate the way cells respond to stress, can turn off pathways involved in neurodegeneration (14). The advent of Clustered Regularly Interspaced Short Palindromic Repeats (CRISPR)/Cas9 gene editing technology offers still more possibilities for developing therapies based on beneficial gene mutations. The controversial technique could one day provide a way to alter the genes of adults for the better. "It is imaginable that in addition to fixing disease-causing mutations, CRISPR/Cas9 will be used to make changes to genes that lower the risk for disease," says biologist Jonathan Weissman of the University of California, San Francisco, whose research includes CRISPR applications.

The ability to find natural protective mutations might even speed the progress of drug testing—a process that's typically slow and expensive—by helping to validate drug targets. Such clues could, in principle, help drug companies decide on the drugs most likely to be effective. In an experiment to predict

whether a compound was likely to have the desired effect, Kathiresan and colleagues set out to see if a drug called ezetimibe—developed to lower cholesterol—would also prevent heart attacks. Because ezetimibe blocks the NPC1L1 protein, the team looked for people with mutations in the *NPC1L1* gene to study their heart attack rates, "If we could find these people, it would be as if they'd be given the drug for their whole life," says Kathiresan.

Returning to a subset of the NHLBI's hundred thousand exomes, Kathiresan's team found a handful—roughly one in 650 people—who had any of 15 *NPC1L1* mutations and, indeed, those individuals had a 53% lower heart attack risk compared with people without the mutations. A few months later, the results of a clinical trial came back; advanced heart disease patients taking ezetimibe showed a small decrease in heart attacks and strokes (15). It was proof of concept that beneficial mutations could help predict the effect of a drug.

A Struggle Against Statistics

Kathiresan's experiment depended on the huge NHLBI exome database because beneficial mutations are both hard to find and hard to prove. For his plan to predict drugs' performance in trials, as with any efforts to hunt down protective mutations, researchers need very large pools of people and loads of data on their health.

If a few people with a rare disease also all share a rare genetic mutation, there's a good bet that the mutation is related to their disease. But if a handful of healthy people have the same genetic mutation, it's more likely to be coincidence, and more difficult—from a statistical standpoint—to demonstrate causation.

"Risk and protection are really just flip sides of the same coin," says Kathiresan. "If you have a mutation that increases risk in 5 percent of people, you could really say that 95 percent of people have a protective version of the gene." When he and his team looked for mutations linked to low blood triglycerides, they decided their quarry had to both knock out or impede a protein's function and lower risk below the norm. Amid 100,000 exomes, they managed to find four variants in *APOC3*, each of which occurs in only around 1 in 1,000 people.

Biesecker's ClinSeq study, with under 1,000 participants, isn't even designed to seek out protective mutations, only to document examples of people with disease-causing gene variants but no disease. That's because getting enough people to search for disease-preventing genes is such a challenge, Biesecker says. Complicating matters, vast networks of related genes might contribute to a given disease or set of symptoms.

"We've long known that you can have gene–gene interactions and that one gene variant can compensate for another. But these things are statistically and mathematically challenging to study because the combinatorial possibilities here are enormous," he says. "It's a numbers and power issue. We'd need millions of people in a cohort to be able to statistically tease those things out."

The potential value of such a database, especially the prospect of including detailed health histories to detect the presence or absence of illness, is illustrated by the lucky break that led Altschuler's group at the Broad group to zero in on one variant of the *SLC30A8* gene. The team had a data suggesting that *SLC30A8* might be protective, but they couldn't quite come up with the statistical power they needed to prove the gene's effect. In Iceland, however, neurologist Kari Steffanson and his company deCODE genetics has spent two decades compiling genetic and health data on half a million people, including more than a third of

Icelanders. The trove includes 10,000 whole-genome sequences, 2,600 of which were described in a *Nature Genetics* paper last year (17). When one of the Broad scientists mentioned their suspicions about *SLC30A8* to Steffansson during a phone call, the deCODE CEO did a quick search through his database for people who had the mutation—and their health backgrounds. “They had a hint of an association but could never prove it,” Steffansson says. “Within 10 minutes, though, I could demonstrate that we had variants.”

Still, Steffánson, too, thinks more genomes and more phenotype information are needed. "There is the role of chance, there is the role of the environment, and there is the role of the rest of the genetic background," Steffánson points out. "So this is a complex interplay."

"More people are doing this kind of study now," says Barzilai. "But, unfortunately, not enough."

Studying the extremely elderly or extremely healthy, he says, has the potential to help researchers make connections between genes and their function, between diseases and their molecular causes, and between therapeutics and their effectiveness. "If studies like ours are successful," says Barzilay, "we can profoundly change both aging and disease."

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